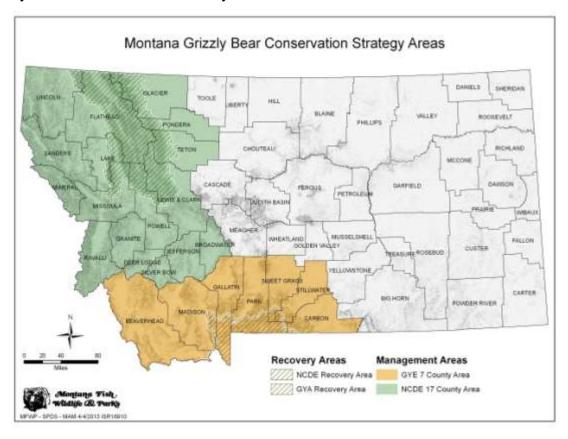
DESCRIPTION OF THE GRIZZLY BEAR MANAGEMENT AREA FOR SOUTHWESTERN MONTANA

Grizzly bears currently occupy or have been documented in suitable habitats in the seven southwestern and south-central Montana counties adjacent to or near YNP (Carbon, Stillwater, Sweet Grass, Park, Gallatin, Madison, and Beaverhead Counties, Fig. 2). The proposed action of this document is to create and adapt a management plan for this area. The following section briefly describes the geographic and human environment of this seven-county area with respect to geography, size, human population, land ownership, special management areas, agricultural interests, and recreation. Not all portions of these counties are suitable grizzly bear habitat as the above attributes affect the distribution and survival of grizzly bears. Aided by management programs, grizzly bears have expanded distribution beyond the seven-county area recognized in 2002. Expansion is occurring in Montana from the Northern Continental Divide Ecosystem and the Yellowstone Ecosystem. For purposes of this plan, the counties adjacent to but outside of this seven county area fall under management programs described by the Grizzly Bear Management Plan for Western Montana (2006) (Figure 2). The success of these programs rests on coordinating and cooperating with all affected counties, surrounding states and federal agencies. FWP will continue to work with these entities so that the needs of the public and bear population as a whole are met.

Figure 2. The seven counties of the Greater Yellowstone Area that fall under management of the Southwest Montana grizzly plan and the 17 counties of the Northern Continental Divide Ecosystem area that fall under management of the Western Montana grizzly plan. Grizzly bear recovery areas are shown for both ecosystems.



General Description

Each of the seven counties named above is characterized by one or more major river valleys divided by rugged mountain ranges. Elevations range from 12,799 ft. at Granite Peak (Montana's highest point) to about 3,330 ft. on the Yellowstone River near Park City. Major river drainages include the Clark's Fork of the Yellowstone, Stillwater, Boulder, Shields, Yellowstone, Gallatin, Madison, Red Rock, Ruby, Bighole, Wise, Beaverhead, and Jefferson rivers. Several rivers in the western portion of this area flow together to form the Upper Missouri River, beginning at Three Forks. Lower elevation habitats (below 6,000 ft.) vary greatly, including large areas of short-grass/sagebrush prairie, mountain foothills, intensively cultivated areas (grain and hay field agriculture), natural wetlands/lakes, riparian plant communities ranging from narrow stream bank zones to extensive cottonwood river bottoms, man-made reservoirs, small communities, and sizeable cities.

The mountainous portion of this seven-county area (above 6,000 ft.) contains all or portions of 18 mountain ranges including the Beartooth, Absaroka, Crazy, Bridger, Gallatin, Spanish Peaks, Madison, Henry Lake, Centennial, Gravelly, Snowcrest, Ruby, Tobacco Root, Highland, East Pioneer, West Pioneer, Tendoy, Beaverhead, and Anaconda-Pintler. Mountainous habitats are dominated by coniferous forest (Douglas fir, lodgepole pine, Engleman spruce, whitebark pine, limber pine, ponderosa pine, juniper), and rocky subalpine/alpine communities found above timberline.

Geographic Size and Human Population

The seven-county area encompasses approximately 12,865,088 acres or 20,102 square miles of southwestern and south-central Montana (Table 1). This represents about 14.8% of Montana's human population. County population size ranges from 3,600 (Sweet Grass) to 91,000 people (Gallatin). Population density ranges from 1.7 persons per square mile (Beaverhead County) to 34.4 persons per square mile (Gallatin). Major population centers include Bozeman, Livingston, Belgrade, Dillon, Red Lodge, Big Timber, Three Forks, West Yellowstone, and Big Sky. The population in this seven county area grew by 25% between 2000 and 2011 while the overall population of Montana grew by only 11%. Gallatin County was the fastest growing county, increasing by 43% from 2000-2011 while Park County actually decreased in population by 3%.

Table 1. Selected size, population, and agricultural attributes of the seven counties in the grizzly bear conservation area.

| County | Pop. ¹ | Size (Sq. Mi.) | People/Sq. Mile | # Cattle ² | # Sheep ³ | Acres Harvested ⁴ |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|
| Carbon | 10,028 | 22,049 | 4.9 | 60,000 | 5,100 | 141,887 |
| Stillwater | 9,131 | 1,795 | 5.1 | 47,000 | 7,400 | 100,258 |
| Sweet Grass | 3,623 | 1,855 | 2.0 | 38,000 | 5,400 | 51,319 |
| Park | 15,469 | 2,803 | 5.6 | 41,000 | 1,800 | 60,300 |
| Gallatin | 91,377 | 2,603 | 34.4 | 51,000 | 2,700 | 155,842 |
| Madison | 7,660 | 3,587 | 2.1 | 74,000 | 3,200 | 86,550 |
| Beaverhead | 9,198 | 5,542 | 1.7 | 110,000 | 14,600 | 121,277 |
| Totals | 146,486 | 20,234 | 8.0 | 421,000 | 40,200 | 717,433 |
| Change since 2002 EIS | +25% | 0% | 38% | -16% | -37% | +3% |

¹Based on 2011 population estimate (Montana Census Bureau, http://quickfacts.census.gov).

Land Ownership

The majority of the mountainous habitat (above 6,000 ft.) is within publicly owned National forests. All or portions of the Custer, Gallatin, and Beaverhead-Deerlodge National Forests occur within this seven-county area. A small portion of mountainous habitat is in Montana Department of Natural Resources and Conservation (DNRC), FWP, BLM, and private ownership, including private subdivisions, ranches, ski resorts, and timber company lands.

Low-elevation river valleys (below 6,000 ft.) are largely privately owned with only a small percentage in state (DNRC, FWP) and federal (BLM, USFS, and U.S. National Wildlife Refuges) ownership. The largest amount of low-elevation land lies within privately owned ranches and farms. Small, medium and large-sized communities also occupy several thousand acres of low-elevation river-valley habitat.

Special Management Areas

Several federal and state special management areas are located in the seven-county area. In large part, these areas are protected from human development and provide long-term habitat for a variety of wildlife species, including grizzly bears. Portions of four National Wilderness Areas lie within mountain ranges in the seven-county area: the Absaroka-Beartooth Wilderness, Lee Metcalf Wilderness, Bear Trap Canyon Wilderness and Anaconda-Pintler Wilderness. National Forest Wilderness Areas have the greatest restrictions on human use and development resulting in the least disturbed habitats available and are important in ensuring long-term grizzly bear survival.

Other special management areas include Red Rock Lakes National Wildlife Refuge and eight FWP Wildlife Management Areas. Roughly half, 6.6 million acres, of the seven county area is

²Based on inventory estimates of all cattle and calves for 2012 (Montana Agricultural Statistics www.nass.usda.gov).

³Based on inventory estimates of all sheep and lambs for 2012 (Montana Agricultural Statistics).

⁴Based on estimates of irrigated and non-irrigated acres harvested in 2007, (Montana Agriculture Statistics).

in public ownership of some type. FWP manages 63,000 of those acres and the USFS has management authority for the majority with 4.4 million acres.

Agricultural Interests

The seven-county area supports a large agricultural economy. The most common activity of these farms and ranches is raising beef cattle and growing forage (hay) for cattle. In some areas, small grain crops such as wheat, oats, and barley are intensively grown. Horses, sheep, hogs and dairy cattle are also raised but in smaller numbers on ranches and farms in southwestern and south-central Montana. Beef cattle and sheep are grazed on privately owned grassland and on publicly owned (USFS, BLM, DNRC) grazing allotments. Some of these allotments occur in higher elevation habitats occupied by grizzly bears.

Based on Montana agricultural statistics for 2012, there were an estimated 421,000 head of cattle (all cattle and calves) in the seven-county area, a decrease of 16% since 2002 (Table 1). Beaverhead County had the most cattle (110,000) while Sweet Grass had the lowest number (38,000 head). Beaverhead County ranked #1 in the state for cattle production. In 2012, there were an estimated 40,200 sheep (adults and lambs) in the seven-county area, a decrease of 37% since 2002 (Table 1). Beaverhead County had the largest number of sheep (14,600) while Park County had the fewest (1,800). Beaverhead County ranked #3 in the state for sheep production. In 2007, an estimated 698,275 acres of irrigated and non-irrigated crops were harvested in the seven-county area (Table 1). Number of acres harvested ranged from 51,319 in Sweetgrass County to 155,842 in Gallatin County.

Recreational Opportunities

Outdoor recreation and tourism is a major component of the economy in this seven-county area. Southwestern and south-central Montana is nationally known for its high quality fishing, hunting, camping, hiking, river floating, skiing, snowmobiling, wildlife viewing and sightseeing opportunities. Nearby, YNP attracts large numbers of people to the area every year. Many of these outdoor activities are made possible by public ownership of large tracts of mountainous habitat and additional access provided by private landowners. Recreationists have largely unhampered access to millions of acres of undeveloped land. Much of this land is currently or will be occupied by grizzly bears based on documented trends of increasing distribution. As bear numbers and distribution increase along with increased public use of bear habitat, contact and interaction between bears and people will increase.

SUMMARY OF GRIZZLY BEAR BIOLOGY

(modified from the 2002 Programmatic Environmental Impact Statement (Mincher, B. J., 2000 and Schwartz et al. 2002), new information is cited)

Grizzly bears in this area come in many sizes and colors. The most prevalent color has medium to dark brown underfur, brown legs, hump, and underparts, light to medium grizzling on the head and part of the back, and a light-colored girth band or patch behind the forelegs, but many other variations exist. The size of male and female grizzly bears varies substantially with males about 1.2-2.2 times larger than females. Differences in body mass between males and females are influenced by age at sexual maturity, reproductive status, differential mortality, and season of sampling. During late summer and fall, grizzly bears gain weight rapidly, primarily as fat when they feed intensively prior to denning. Pre-denning weight gain is essential for reproduction and survival because bears rely solely on their stored energy reserves during hibernation. Peak body mass generally occurs in fall just prior to hibernation. Bears metabolize fat and muscle during the denning period.

Habitat

As with any wildlife population, bear density in the Yellowstone area will eventually be limited by geographic area and food resources. Food resources and population density dependence controls wildlife population limits. Yet, grizzly bears are extremely adaptable and exploit a wide variety of habitats and foods throughout their range indicating relatively broad environmental limits. Individual bears may exhibit individual preferences and tolerances. Most key grizzly foods in the GYA occur seasonally and somewhat unreliably. However, grizzly adaptability often compensates for the lack of some forage thought to be critical. Such a generalized approach to survival necessitates a solitary and mobile lifestyle. Individual grizzlies forage over vast areas and have large spatial requirements. The active season for grizzlies is compressed to a 5-7 month period, during which they must gain sufficient weight to supply their energetic needs for the next denning cycle. Bears tend to concentrate their activity in the most productive habitats available because of these high energetic needs.

In general, GYA home ranges are larger than those of other grizzly bear populations. This larger range possibly indicates low environmental productivity in the GYA and increased foraging requirements to meet their nutritional needs or it may be caused more by the wide distribution of favorite foods at different times of the year. Individual ranges of both sexes overlap, but do not appear to be defended, even for adult males. Subadult bears, especially males, disperse from their natal ranges to establish new home ranges, and these spatial requirements probably limit ultimate population density.

As with other bear species and populations, male grizzly home ranges in the GYA are usually larger than female ranges. The Interagency Grizzly Bear Study Team (IGBST) reported mean range sizes from 1975-1987 of 874 km² for adult males and 281 km² for adult females. Females with new cubs used slightly less area, and those with yearlings used more. New estimates of home range have been calculated for radio-tracked grizzlies in the GYA and indicate some decrease in home range from these earlier estimates (Table 2, IGBST, unpublished data).

Table 2. Minimum convex polygon range estimates (km²) for grizzly bears radio-tracked in the GYA during 1989-2012. Range estimate were only included for bears that had at least one location during June or earlier in the calendar year, ≥ 10 locations for the active season, and at least one location during September. Individuals that had been transported due to conflicts were excluded after their initial transport.

| | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval (km²) | | |
|------------------|-----|---------------|---|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|--|
| Class | N | Mean (km²) | Std. Deviation (km ²) | Std. Error (km ²) | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | |
| Subadult F | 31 | 139 | 132 | 24 | 91 | 188 | |
| Adult F with COY | 57 | 154 | 151 | 20 | 114 | 194 | |
| Other adult F | 122 | 127 | 98 | 9 | 109 | 144 | |
| Subadult M | 45 | 545 | 613 | 91 | 361 | 729 | |
| Adult M | 104 | 376 | 364 | 36 | 306 | 447 | |

In the GYA, the pattern of seasonal elevation use is similar to that found for other populations occupying interior western mountains. Grizzlies utilized carrion and rodents prior to spring green-up, and foraged extensively on grasses, sedges and herbs in season, and berries, nuts and fish in the post-growing season. The most widely used foods were grasses and sedges, which constituted more than half of the diet.

Long-term studies of Yellowstone grizzly bear food habits have revealed large year-to-year variations in diet as grizzlies exploited foods that were only infrequently available. Examples of specialty foods included ants, pondweed and sweet cicely. The early season diet was dominated by ungulates, both scavenged and as neonate prey, notably elk calves, mid-season by grasses and sedges, and late-season by pine seeds, large mammal carcasses and roots. The annual percentage of energy obtained from the ungulate meat is considerably higher in the GYA than for other interior populations although herbaceous foods remain important because they are more predictable. Grizzly bears at high densities and in some circumstances can impact the ungulate prey base. However, in this area the ungulate prey base is also impacted by other factors such as mountain lions, wolves, hunting, and winter severity. Yellowstone grizzlies have 234 species of 179 genus of vegetative, insect and vertebrate food sources, including the high caloric cyclic crops of army cutworm moths, whitebark pines seeds, and large mammal meat (Gunther et al, 2012).

Yellowstone area grizzlies prefer open grasslands adjacent to cover for most of their feeding activities. While grizzlies depend on fertile grasslands for their predictable supply of forage, seasonally abundant foods are exploited as available. These foods include whitebark pine seeds and carrion.

Whitebark pine seeds are heavily utilized because they are available during the hyperphagic period prior to denning. Many bears feed on pine seeds nearly exclusively at that time. Large

amounts of cones are obtained by raiding squirrel caches, which the bears exhume. After good production years, seeds that survive the winter are also used the following spring. Historically, there was a relationship between whitebark pine seed abundance and the number of bears in conflict management situations. During good years, bears move to high-elevation, whitebark pine habitats. But in poor years, grizzlies are found foraging throughout larger areas that may bring them near roads and developed sites more frequently encountering unsecured anthropogenic foods. Many whitebark pine stands in the northwest have been infected and killed by whitebark pine blister rust. Whitebark in the GYA has been infected by this disease and by pine beetle infestations during 2003-2009. The Interagency Whitebark Pine Monitoring Program annually surveys and reports the extent of whitebark pine tree loss.

The army cutworm moth is a second, high-fat food source for a segment of the Yellowstone grizzly population during the early hyperphagic period. Moths collect under rocks in alpine areas in late summer and fall. To date, there have been 37 confirmed and 17 possible moth sites observed with grizzly bear feeding activity in the Yellowstone Ecosystem. All of these sites are located in the eastern side of the ecosystem. No moth sites have been documented in Montana's portion of the ecosystem.

During the fall season, bears seek out meat sources associated with big game hunting seasons in the states surrounding YNP.

Anthropogenic foods (i.e. garbage, livestock feed, pet food, bird seed, human foods, garden crops, honey) are opportunistically used by grizzlies wherever humans and bears coexist, and most often in years when important natural foods fail. In the GYA, considerable effort has gone into eliminating the availability of anthropogenic foods and these efforts have been largely successful in reducing incidents of bear-human conflicts. In the past 15 years, there have been increases in county and state ordinances and laws regulating food storage and the feeding of wildlife. There has also been an expansion of food storage rules on USFS public lands to include the entire Gallatin National Forest, Beaverhead National Forest, and on FWP wildlife management areas (WMA). Community efforts have also resulted in a number of local programs to secure garbage sources from bears.

In summary, grizzlies are opportunistic omnivores that are able to take advantage of a wide variety of locally important foods. Home range size seems determined by food abundance and population density dependence. Many individuals are able to abandon, or overlap, their ranges to exploit concentrated food aggregations such as pine seeds, moths, fish, carrion, fruits or garbage. Much of this behavior seems influenced by experience and habit. This adaptability has obvious survival advantages, but also results in large spatial requirements that complicate grizzly management.

Habitat for Denning

Yellowstone grizzlies can spend four to seven months a year in dens. In general, bears den by mid-November, although pregnant females den somewhat earlier. Their emergence from wintering dens occurs from mid-February to late March for males, followed by single females and lastly by females with new cubs, which can emerge as late as mid-April.

Dens typically are found on steep slopes at high elevation (\geq 6500 feet) and in all cover types in the GYA. Dens are usually excavated, although natural shelters such as caves and hollow trees are also used. The availability of denning habitat is not thought to be limiting for the GYA bears.

Security at den sites appears to be an important management consideration, especially if human disturbance occurs near the time of den entry. There has been some concern of the possible effects that snowmobiles may have on denning bears as snowmobiling does have the potential to disturb bears while in their dens and after emergence in the spring. Because grizzly bears are easily awakened in the den (Schwartz et al. 2003) and have been documented abandoning den sites after seismic disturbance (Reynolds et al., 1986), the potential impact from snowmobiling should be considered. There are no studies in the literature specifically addressing the effects of snowmobile use on any denning bear species and the information that is available is anecdotal in nature (USFWS 2002). Known den locations in areas of snowmobile use are monitored within the GYA when possible to determine if snowmobile activity is having any adverse effect on grizzly bears. At this time, there is no evidence of disturbance (K. Frey, pers. comm.).

Habitat for Security

All current grizzly bear habitat in the continental United States is characterized by extensive timber cover, and most day beds are found in timber. This implies that security cover is an important habitat component, possibly due to social pressure from other large carnivores, human avoidance or summer heat avoidance.

It has long been speculated that female grizzlies with cubs avoid other carnivores such as wolves and adult male bears due to their aggressive and occasionally cannibalistic nature.

In the GYA, the only indication of sexual segregation through habitat use is in years of poor pine seed production where females were found more often near roads and areas used by humans.

The Interagency Grizzly Bear Committee (IGBC) considers the presence of even lightly used roads to cause a loss in useful bear habitat. Roads are incorporated in cumulative effects models (CEM) of habitat quality as the presence of a road tends to increase human activity in an area. Some researchers have concluded that grizzly bears habituate to roads and human presence as required to meet their caloric energy needs. Human presence can lead to grizzly bear moralities, whether due to legal hunting, if allowed, to poaching, or to kills by humans in self-defense situations.

In summary, grizzly habitat requirements are determined by their omnivorous foraging behavior, their need for winter den sites and security cover, and their occasional aggressive social behavior. Large roadless areas are ideal as year round grizzly habitat. However, grizzly bears can and do survive in roaded areas if human tolerance for their presence is high and if a diversity of habitat types is present.

Population Dynamics

Grizzly bears are long-lived animals that range over large geographic areas making it difficult to census and assess population levels. Generally, researchers agree that grizzlies have low

reproductive rates and that grizzly populations are very susceptible to human impacts. Grizzly populations are also very sensitive to changes in female survival rates. Age at first reproduction for females is generally between 4-7 years old and male bears reach sexual maturity around 5 years of age. The average litter size for bears in the Yellowstone area is two cubs (range 1-4) and females typically produce cubs every third year. Breeding occurs in late spring with cubs born in the den the following winter.

As with all other bear populations in the world, it is not possible to determine definitively the actual numbers of bears in the GYA. Therefore, any figure is a result of some form of estimation. Using garbage dump census data collected by the Craighead team, and a census efficiency determined by ratios of collared to uncollared mortalities inside and outside YNP, the pre-dump closure bear population was estimated at 312 animals. The population declined to about 230 bears following the closures but began increasing in the late 1980s. After that time researchers calculated that the grizzly population grew 4-7% per year for an average growth rate of 4.6% per year, up until the late 1990's or early 2000's.

These rates of change are calculated as a function of the number of unduplicated females with cubs of the year (COY). Females with COY are readily visible and uniquely identifiable. However, these counts are influenced by counting effort, seasonal cover, and the total number of animals. A standardized and conservative counting approach has been adopted to avoid duplication of females counted. These records have been maintained by the IGBST since 1973. The female with COY count has been steadily increasing since the late 1980s. The population estimation protocol used until 2007 indicated rates of increase between 4% and 7% from 1983-2001.

New population estimation techniques were adopted in 2007 following considerable analyses (IGBST 2005, 2006). The new technique is still a function of delineating unique females with COY but results in a population *estimate* rather than the earlier conservative *index* of population size. First an estimate for the total number of females with COY present in the population is derived by applying the Chao2 estimator to the sighting frequencies of each unique female with COY family (IGBST, 2012.) Then vital rates (for survival and reproduction) are used to estimate the stable age structure and the proportion of females with COY in the population. From these an estimate for the annual population size is produced.

Analysis of the 2002-2011 data during a 2012 IGBST demographic workshop indicates that since 2002, the overall rate of growth of the bear population in the GYE has stabilized or slowed. The analysis looked at the overall population by zones, revealing that the increase in bear numbers is due primarily to growth and survivorship of bears outside YNP but within the recovery zone, as well as bears outside the recovery zone. Population growth within YNP had actually slowed or leveled off. The analysis revealed that mean annual adult male bear survivorship rates had increased from 0.87 during 1983-2001 to 0.95 during 2002-2011; thus accounting for more male bears in the population. Adult female bear vital rates remained nearly constant over the same time periods. The population estimate for 2012 was 610 grizzly bears using the 2007 estimation techniques. The new vital rates derived from 2002 to 2011 data, result in a new estimate of 716 grizzlies for 2012 (IGBST, 2012), primarily because of the increase in male survivorship.

These new data sets and analyses came from the 2012 IGBST workshop to further refine protocols for estimating population size of the GYA grizzlies, evaluate mortality limits and discuss the possibility of zoning the ecosystem for mortality limits given the expanding population (IGBST 2012). Efforts like this will continue to ensure use of the best available science in grizzly bear management and to ensure demographic criteria are met. The USFWS 1993 Recovery Plan established demographic criteria for recovery, including females with COY, mortality limits, and occupancy requirements. Current information on these parameters and their relationship to recovery plan goals are shown in Tables 3 and 4. All of the regional demographic criteria are currently being met for this population.

Table 3. Population estimates and annual evaluations of mortality limits for independent aged (\geq 2 years-old) female and male grizzly bears identified in the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem during 2007-2012 (See IGBST 2006 and Haroldson and Frey 2008).

| | | | | Evaluation of mortality limits | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------------------------|---|--|------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------------|---|--|------------------------------|----------------|
| Population estimates | | | | Independent females (≥2 years old) | | | | | Independent males (≥2 years old) | | | | |
| Year | Population point estimate | Lower 95% CI | Upper 95% CI | Population segment point estimate | Count of known and probable mortalities | Estimated total mortality (reported plus unreported) | Annual mortality limit | Year result | Population segment point estimate | Count of known and probable mortalities | Estimated total mortality (reported plus unreported) | Annual mortality limit | Year result |
| 2007 | 571 | 513 | 629 | 240 | 11 | 20 | 22 | OK | 153 | 7 | 13 | 23 | OK |
| 2008 | 596 | 535 | 656 | 251 | 14 | 30 | 23 | Exceeded | 159 | 23 | 41 | 24 | Exceeded |
| 2009 | 582 | 523 | 641 | 245 | 9 | 20 | 22 | OK | 156 | 11 | 20 | 23 | OK |
| 2010 | 602 | 541 | 663 | 253 | 13 | 21 | 23 | OK | 161 | 26 | 47 | 24 | Exceeded |
| 2011 | 593 | 533 | 652 | 248 | 16 | 32 | 26 | Exceeded | 157 | 16 | 24 | 24 | Exceeded |
| 2012 | 610 | 549 | 672 | 257 | 11 | 15 | 23 | OK | 163 | 18 | 34 | 24 | Exceeded |

Table 4. Bear Management Units in the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem occupied by females with young (cubs-of-the-year, yearlings, 2-year-olds, or young of unknown age), as determined by verified reports, 2007-2012.

| Bear Management Unit | | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | Years occupied |
|--------------------------|--------|------|------|------|------|------|------|----------------|
| 1) Hilgard | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 2) Gallatin | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 3) Hellroaring/Bear | | | X | X | X | X | X | 5 |
| 4) Boulder/Slough | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 5) Lamar | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 6) Crandall/Sunlight | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 7) Shoshone | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 8) Pelican/Clear | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 9) Washburn | | X | X | X | X | | X | 6 |
| 10) Firehole/Hayden | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 11) Madison | | X | X | X | X | X | | 5 |
| 12) Henry's Lake | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 13) Plateau | | X | X | X | X | | X | 5 |
| 14) Two Ocean/Lake | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 15) Thorofare | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 16) South Absaroka | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 17) Buffalo/Spread Creek | | X | X | X | X | X | X | 6 |
| 18) Bechler/Teton | | X | X | X | X | X | | 5 |
| | Totals | 17 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 16 | 16 | |